



**You have downloaded a document from  
RE-BUŚ  
repository of the University of Silesia in Katowice**

**Title:** Language contact and foreign language teaching

**Author:** Marcin Zabawa

**Citation style:** Zabawa Marcin. (2007). Language contact and foreign language teaching. W: J. Arabski (red.), "On foreign language acquisition and effective learning" (S. 89-102). Katowice : Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego



Uznanie autorstwa - Użycie niekomercyjne - Bez utworów zależnych Polska - Licencja ta zezwala na rozpowszechnianie, przedstawianie i wykonywanie utworu jedynie w celach niekomercyjnych oraz pod warunkiem zachowania go w oryginalnej postaci (nie tworzenia utworów zależnych).



UNIwersYTET ŚLĄSKI  
W KATOWICACH



Biblioteka  
Uniwersytetu Śląskiego



Ministerstwo Nauki  
i Szkolnictwa Wyższego

# Language contact and foreign language teaching<sup>1</sup>

**Marcin Zabawa**

University of Silesia, Katowice

## 1. Introduction

Traditionally, language contact was defined as ‘the situation in which two or more languages coexist within one state and . . . the speakers use these different languages alternately in specific situations’ (B u s s m a n, 1998: 260). When defined in this way, the phenomenon does not seem to have a lot in common with foreign language teaching, at least in Poland. Nowadays, however, the language contact does not have to imply the coexistence of two or more languages within one state. In fact, the contact between languages (English and Polish in our situation) may and often does happen via the satellite or cable television, the Internet, the press, books and – perhaps most importantly – via the process of learning and teaching. What is more, nowadays English is perceived in Poland as not only a very useful, but also a fashionable language, learnt by a considerable number of people. English-Polish language contact is thus clearly evident in contemporary Poland. As a consequence, the interference between the two languages is inevitable. It is important to note that the interference can operate in both directions, i.e. L1 may influence L2 (or interlanguage) and vice versa. The process is well visible in foreign language classroom and thus should be taken into account by teachers of English.

---

<sup>1</sup> The present paper is a part of a larger project, namely the author’s doctoral dissertation.

One instance of such interference (L1 influencing L2) can be explained by means of primary counterparts (Arabski, 1979, 1997). The theory can account for certain underdifferentiation errors made by Polish speakers learning English. Such errors are the result of the negative transfer, e.g. *\*I have twenty years*. A learner first forms a sentence in L1 (*mam dwadzieścia lat*) and then mentally translates it into L2 ( $\rightarrow$  *\*I have twenty years*). It appears that such type of erroneous sentences are made at a certain stage of learning, by learners whose knowledge of English has not yet reached an advanced level.

In general, the teachers of English are perfectly aware of the source of such errors and they usually draw their students' attention to them, often by giving explicit explanations. It seems, however, that much fewer people are conscious of the fact that L2 (English) influences L1 (Polish) as well. Naturally, most people are perfectly aware of the existence of English loanwords in Polish. Unfortunately, however, present-day Polish is influenced by English on all the levels: lexis, semantics, syntax and even morphology and phonology (for details, cf. e.g. Mańczak-Wohlfeld, 1993, 1995). It seems that the traditional SLA notion of primary counterparts can be used for accounting for one instance of English influence upon Polish, namely English semantic borrowings in Polish (the term will be defined in the further part of the article). In other words, we will start with the notion of primary counterparts and then proceed to a seemingly different phenomenon, i.e. semantic borrowing. In fact, as we will see, the two processes have a lot in common. The difference is that the problem of English semantic loans in Polish is likely to appear at a later stage, especially during translation from L2 into L1. It is thus particularly likely to affect translators, translation students and – generally – advanced learners. It is thus vital that the teachers who teach advanced students be aware that in the process of foreign language learning it is not only L2 (English in our case) that is somehow distorted (influenced by L1), but it is also the native tongue (Polish in our case) that is somehow distorted by L2.

## 2. Primary counterparts and underdifferentiation errors in English

Traditionally, the term 'primary counterpart' is used in connection with interlanguage, whose characteristic feature is the transfer of L1 habits. The term itself was defined in the following way:

Primary counterpart is the equivalent which in the process of foreign language learning is acquired to render the common meaning of a given L<sub>1</sub> lexical item.

Arabski, 1979: 137

A primary counterpart is an item which in IL [= interlanguage] represents the whole group (list) of L<sub>2</sub> translation equivalents and thus causes underdifferentiation errors.

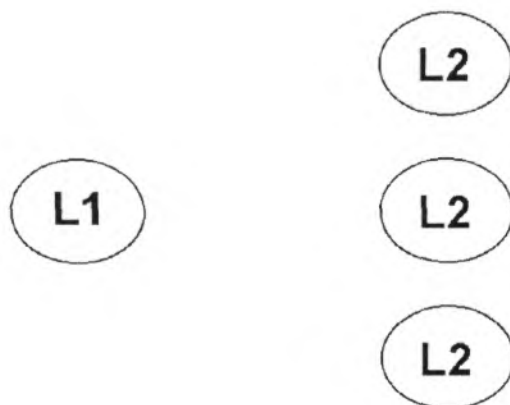
Arabski, 1979: 139

Primary counterpart is the lexical or grammatical construction transferring L<sub>1</sub> construction into IL.

Arabski, 1979: 142

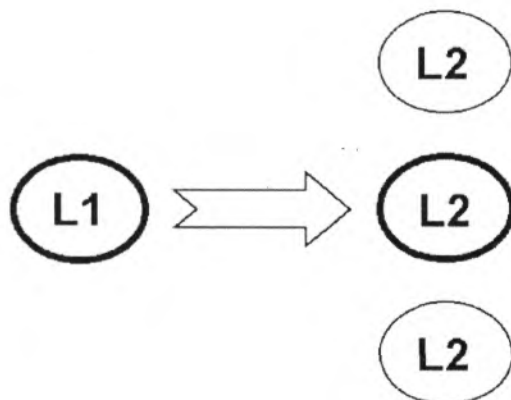
The situation can thus be illustrated by Diagram 1.

**1: Initial situation**



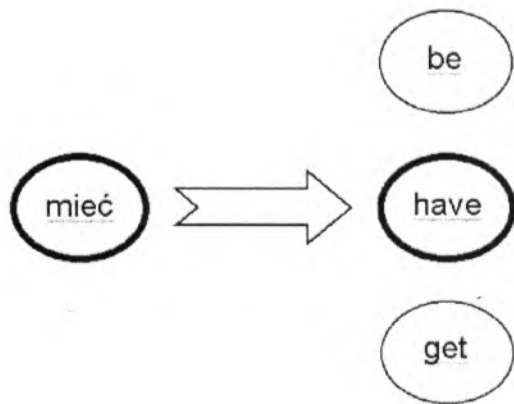
A word in L1 corresponds to more than one equivalent in L2. Being in such a situation, a learner may associate the word in L1 with one of the equivalents in L2, usually the one which was acquired or taught first, before other possible counterparts. As a consequence, a learner will be likely to use this L2 equivalent whenever a given L1 word is used in the corresponding situation in L1 thus making underdifferentiation errors. The situation can be illustrated as in Diagram 2.

**2: Primary counterparts**



As for examples, Arabski states that in the Polish-English learning situation English *have* may be, and usually is, acquired as a primary counterpart of Polish *mieć* (cf. Diagram 3).

3: Example 1



However, as Diagram 3 suggests, there exist other structures where Polish *mieć* is not rendered in English as *have*, e.g.

Chciałbym *mieć* dwadzieścia lat.  
Chciałbym *mieć* tę pracę.

I would like *to be* twenty.  
I would like *to get* this job.

Arabski, 1979: 136

The word *have* will be normally introduced as a counterpart of *mieć* during the process of teaching and learning English. Other counterparts are likely to be introduced later. Thus, as *have* is likely to function as a primary counterpart of *mieć*, a learner, mentally translating *mieć* as *have*, will probably produce erroneous sentences (at a certain stage of the learning process), such as *\*I have twenty years* (instead of correct *I am twenty years old*) modelled on Polish *mam dwadzieścia lat* 'literally: I have twenty years'. In other words, a learner is very likely to make a faulty assumption that Polish *mieć* is always rendered in English as *have*, which, as we know, is not true.

According to Arabski, other areas in which a learner is likely to make such type of errors are the ones connected with the use of prepositions. As for examples, he states that English *in* may be acquired as a primary counterpart of Polish *w*. As a result, a learner may produce such structures as *my husband could not help me in the housework* (instead of correct *with the housework*), *marriage in the time of study can be a new problem* (instead of *marriage during one's studies*) or *the problem of money is very real in student married couples* (instead of correct *for student married couples*) (Arabski, 1997: 46-47).

Interestingly enough, some errors made in other areas, e.g. in the use of tenses, can also be explained with the help of primary counterparts. For example, a Polish learner of English (at an early stage of the learning process) is likely to choose one tense, most probably the simple past, to express all the constructions referring to the past. The English system of tenses is, on the other hand, much more complicated, as the simple past is only one of the tenses used to refer to past events. Consequently, the simple past is likely to function as a primary counterpart of Polish past tense. A learner may thus produce various faulty constructions, such as *It might have happened if I did not lead my life from the very beginning in the way I often planned*, instead of correct . . . *if I hadn't lead . . . I had often planned* (Arabski, 1997: 48).

It must be added here that such a process is visible only when a given structure in L1 is less complicated than the equivalent structure in L2. In other words, the structure in IL is simplified under the influence of L1 (Arabski, 1997). From a learner's viewpoint, it is much easier and more convenient to use one English preposition (*in*) in all the contexts where *w* is used in corresponding Polish structures, rather than use a whole array of English prepositions (*in*, *at*, *on*, *by*, etc.). Similarly, it is easier and more convenient to use only one English past tense, e.g. the simple past, in all the situations where the past tense would be used in equivalent Polish structures, rather than use a whole system of past tenses (the simple past, the present perfect, the past perfect, etc.).

### 3. Primary counterparts and underdifferentiation errors in Polish

As was stated in the introduction, the interference between two languages in contact can operate in both directions. The negative transfer from L1 into L2 (or into IL) is visible especially in the language of less advanced learners. It seems that foreign language teachers are perfectly aware of the source of such errors. However, L2 can and does influence the speaker's native tongue as well. One instance of such influence, namely the emergence of semantic loans, is particularly rarely noticed by the people who have not been trained in linguistics (cf. e.g. Otwinowska-Kasztelanic, 2000). It seems, however, that the process of semantic borrowing can be successfully explained by the theory of primary counterparts.

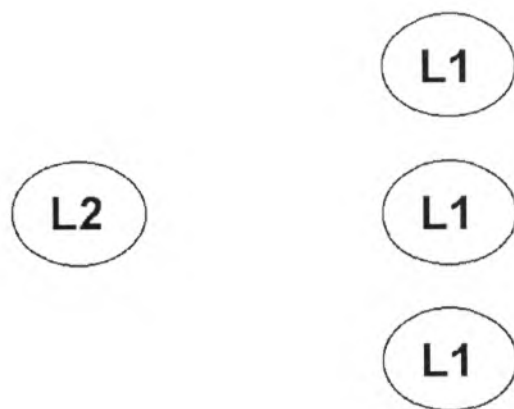
Before one can describe the relation between primary counterparts and semantic loans, it would first seem necessary to define the latter term, some-

times also referred to as loan shifts<sup>2</sup> (Crystal, 1997: 227) and loan meaning (Lehnert, 1986: 134). A semantic borrowing (or a semantic loan) can be defined as a meaning of a word taken over by one language from another. In other words, only the meaning is borrowed, while the form is native (cf. also Weinreich, 1974; Haugen, 1950; Markowski, 1992, 1999, 2004; Dunaj et al., 1999; Otwinowska-Kasztelanic, 2000). As for examples, the Polish word *ikona* was used in the past in the meaning of 'a painting of a holy person, used in Eastern Churches'<sup>3</sup> (cf. *Słownik języka polskiego*, ed. by Szymczak, 1982-1983, abbreviated to SJP). Nowadays the word is also used, most probably under the influence of the English form *icon*, in the meaning of 'a small picture on a computer screen, which represents a program or a file.' *Ikona* in Polish can thus serve as an example of a semantic borrowing. Such words are most probably introduced into Polish due to careless translations of e.g. American films, series and commercials, commonly broadcast by the Polish television.

As was noted before, it seems that the notion of primary counterparts can be very useful in accounting for the existence of semantic loans in general and English semantic loans in Polish in particular. However, it is important to remember that the process of 'mental translation' goes here in the opposite direction, i.e. not from L1 into L2 (or into interlanguage) but from L2 into L1.

The initial situation is illustrated by Diagram 4.

#### 4: Initial situation

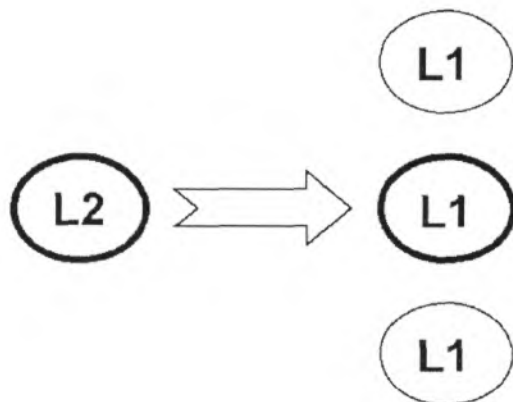


<sup>2</sup> There is, however, disagreement among linguists: Haugen (1950: 166), for example, classifies both semantic loans and loan translations as subtypes of loan shifts.

<sup>3</sup> The definitions of meanings of words are formed with the help of or directly quoted from English monolingual dictionaries, primarily *Oxford Advanced Learner's dictionary*, 6<sup>th</sup> edition (abbreviated to OALD, by Hornby, ed. by Wehmeier, 2000) and *Oxford Dictionary of English*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition (abbreviated to ODE, ed. by Soanes & Stevenson, 2003).

A word in L2 corresponds to more than one equivalent in L1. A translator may then associate the word in L2 with one of the equivalents in L1 (sometimes similar in spelling and/or pronunciation). Hence, he or she is likely to use this L1 equivalent whenever a given L2 word is used in the corresponding situation in L2. The situation in question is illustrated by Diagram 5.

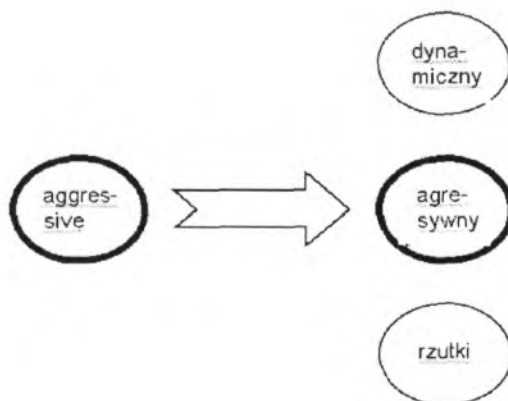
5: *Primary counterparts*



As one can see, the situation is very similar to the one described in the previous section, the most important difference being the opposite direction of the 'mental translation'. It should be stressed once more, however, that the very nature of the two processes seems to be essentially the same.

Diagram 6 presents one of the examples.

6: *Example 1*



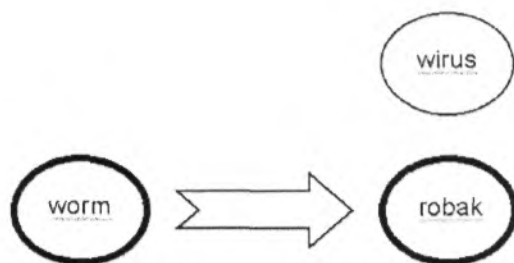
The word *aggressive* can be used in English in two main senses: the negative one ('angry, violent, ready to attack') and the positive one ('full of energy, intensive, behaving in a very determined way in order to succeed', cf. OALD).



In Polish, on the other hand, the word *agresywny* has negative connotations ('angry, ready to attack', cf. *Nowy słownik poprawnej polszczyzny*, ed. by Markowski, 2002, abbreviated to NSPP). It seems that the pair *aggressive-agresywny* can be termed primary counterparts, understood as the most 'obvious' translation equivalents. Now let us imagine that the English phrase *an aggressive advertising campaign* or *an aggressive salesperson* appears e.g. in a magazine and must be translated into Polish. The phrase should have been translated as e.g. *dynamiczna kampania reklamowa* or *rzutki/energiczny sprzedawca* (cf. Diagram 6), but it is very often the case that a translator uses the most 'obvious' equivalent (a primary counterpart), thus creating such phrases as *agresywna kampania reklamowa* or *agresywny sprzedawca*. The word *agresywny* in the new meaning is then likely to be repeated by other writers and translators and finally starts to be used spontaneously in spoken language as well. Consequently, a new semantic loan appeared in this way in Polish – *agresywny* used in the positive sense of 'behaving in a determined way, full of energy.' Interestingly enough, this new usage of *agresywny* is explicitly marked as incorrect in NSPP (cf. also Markowski & Pawelec, 2001).

The second example is presented in Diagram 7.

7: Example 2



One deals here with the English word *worm*, meaning 'a long thin creature living in soil' or 'the young form of an insect' (OALD), corresponding to Polish *robak*. *Worm-robak* are thus primary counterparts. The English word, however, can also be used in relation to computers, in the meaning of 'a self-replicating program able to propagate itself across a network, typically having a detrimental effect' (ODE). Let us now imagine, as in the case above, that the word *worm* is used in an English computer magazine and must be translated into Polish. The word in question could have possibly been incorporated into Polish as an unassimilated borrowing or translated as e.g. *wirus* but it is very often the case that a translator uses a primary counterpart. Thus the word *robak* will appear in a new meaning, related to the area of computers. The word in this meaning is then likely to be repeated by other writers and translators and finally starts to be used spontaneously in spoken Polish as well. *Robak*

has thus become a new semantic loan in Polish (cf. also the article by the present author – Z a b a w a, 2004: 62).

As for other examples, one could mention the English word *original*, which can be used in three main senses: (1) 'creative', (2) 'not copied' and (3) 'existing at the beginning of something; first or earliest'. The Polish primary counterpart is *oryginalny*, i.e. (1) 'creative' or (2) 'not copied'. However, the English word can be used in a wider variety of contexts. Consequently, phrases such as *original Star Wars* (meaning 'the old Star Wars trilogy', i.e. 'A New Hope', 'The Empire Strikes Back' and 'Return of the Jedi') are sometimes translated into Polish as *oryginalne Gwiezdne Wojny* instead of *pierwotne* or *stare* as in *stara gwiazdna trylogia*. *Oryginalny*, when used in the meaning of 'first or earliest', can thus be said to be a new semantic loan (cf. also Z a b a w a, 2004: 59-60).

The English form *test* and its Polish counterpart (with identical spelling) can be considered another example worth mentioning. Polish *test* has a very narrow meaning in comparison with its English counterpart, because the former is roughly equivalent to English 'multiple choice test', i.e. a very special kind of test, where a person has several answers to choose from. English *test*, on the other hand, may refer to practically any kind of examination, including an oral one. Recently, however, the meaning of the Polish *test* has also been extended. As for concrete examples, a history teacher who prepared a written test, where one of the tasks involved writing a letter to a king describing a battle, was heard to call it *test*, saying *to jest bardzo łatwy test* 'this is a very easy test.' Thus it seems possible to say, as was stated above, that the meaning of Polish *test* has been extended. Moreover, we also hear such phrases as e.g. *testy produktów spożywczych, telewizorów* instead of *badania, kontrole*. In general, the word *test* is marked as overused in NSPP (cf. also Z a b a w a, 2004: 62-63).

Moreover, one could mention such words as *net* or *the Net* (capitalized). It is possible to argue that the words *net-sieć* function as the primary counterparts. Now let us imagine that the English informal word (*the*) *Net* (meaning 'the Internet') appears e.g. in a computer magazine or on a website and must be translated into Polish. The word could have possibly been translated as e.g. *Internet*, but it is very often the case that a translator uses the primary counterpart, i.e. *sieć*, or – corresponding more closely to the English model – *Sieć*. The word in this meaning is then repeated. Consequently, a new semantic loan appeared in this way – *sieć* (or *Sieć*) used in the meaning of 'the Internet' (cf. also Z a b a w a, 2004: 61-62).

*Sophisticated-wyrafinowany* is the next pair worth mentioning. The English word can be used with reference to, e.g., machines or computers in the meaning of 'complicated and refined'. It is thus possible to form such phrases as *sophisticated computer programs*. They are not infrequently translated into

Polish with the help of the primary counterpart *wyrafinowany*. As a consequence, it is quite easy to come across such expressions as *wyrafinowane programy komputerowe*, although there exist better equivalents, such as *zaawansowane* or *wysokiej klasy*. It should be added that normally the Polish word *wyrafinowany* refers to such abstract nouns as e.g. *gust* 'taste', thus appearing in the phrases like *wyrafinowane gusta* (cf. also Otwinowska, 1997).

Other pairs include e.g. English *president* and Polish *prezydent*. In both languages the word means 'a leader of the republic', but in English it can also be used to refer to 'the person in charge (head) of some organizations, clubs, colleges and also of some commercial organizations, e.g. a bank.' This meaning is realized in Polish by such words as *prezes* or *przewodniczący*. However, nowadays one can also occasionally notice such phrases as *prezydent banku*, *prezydent związku zawodowego*, *prezydent konfederacji pracodawców prywatnych*, which is again a result of the translation using the primary counterparts. It must be added here that the word *prezydent* in the new meaning is explicitly marked as incorrect in NSPP (cf. also Markowski, 2004).

Other examples of semantic borrowings in Polish include (Grybosiova, 1994; Otwinowska-Kasztelanic, 2000; Markowski & Pawelec, 2001; Markowski, 1992, 1999, 2004):

- *dokładnie*, used for expressing the agreement with what somebody has just said, on the model of English *exactly*, instead of Polish *właśnie* or *tak*;
- *dieta*, used in the meaning of 'the food that a person eats and drinks', on the model of English *diet*, instead of Polish *pokarm*, *jedzenie* or *jadłospis*;
- *kondycja*, used in the meaning of 'the present state of a thing', e.g. *kondycja gospodarki*, on the model of English *condition*, instead of Polish *stan*;
- *aplikacja*, used in two new meanings: (1) 'a written request for something, usually a job' (instead of Polish *podanie*) and (2) 'a computer program designed to do a particular task', on the model of English *application*;
- *strona*, in the meaning of 'a web page'.

More examples of English semantic borrowings in contemporary Polish can be found, e.g., in the following articles: Markowski (1992, 2004), Otwinowska (1997), Waszakowa (1995) and the present author (Zabawa, 2004).

As one can see, the nature of the entire process is very similar to the one described in the previous section of the article. As was shown, the process operates in the opposite direction. Nevertheless, it is again connected with simplification: the process is visible when a given structure in L2 is less complicated than in L1. In other words, a structure in L1 is simplified under the influence of L2. From a learner's or translator's point of view, it is easier and more convenient to use one Polish word (e.g. *agresywny*) in all the contexts where *aggressive* is used in corresponding English structures, rather than use a whole

range of Polish words (e.g. *agresywny*, *rzutki*, *energiczny*, *dynamiczny*, etc.). Besides, it may sometimes be not easy to find a good Polish counterpart, especially during oral (particularly simultaneous) translation. As a result, the most 'obvious' translation equivalent, i.e. primary counterpart, is likely to be used.

Such a problem faces mainly, but not only, more advanced learners and their teachers. It is particularly likely to appear during translation from L2 into L1. It would therefore seem reasonable to teach vocabulary to more advanced students in a very careful and thorough way. For example, a teacher should check if the students are aware that *aggressive* will not always be rendered in Polish as *agresywny*. Moreover, they should be given a whole array of various contexts of the word *aggressive*, e.g.:

- *an aggressive dog*,
- *an aggressive teenager*,
- *an aggressive advertising campaign*,
- *an aggressive acquisition strategy*,
- *aggressive behaviour*,
- *an aggressive and competitive executive*,
- *an aggressive salesperson*.<sup>4</sup>

Next, a teacher should make sure that the learners are aware of the fact that the meaning of the word *aggressive* in *aggressive teenager* and *aggressive salesperson* is not quite the same. As a result, the word may not have a single counterpart in another language.

Other words, e.g. *president*, should be presented to advanced learners in a similar way:

- *the president of the United States*,
- *the Irish president*,
- *the president of the students' union*,
- *the bank president*,
- *the president of Columbia Pictures*,
- *the president of medical commission*,
- *the president of the new company*,
- *the president of the European Union*.

Similarly, *sophisticated* can be presented as follows:

- *a smart and sophisticated young man*,
- *highly sophisticated computer systems*,
- *sophisticated medical techniques*,
- *a sophisticated audience*,

---

<sup>4</sup> The examples presenting the words *aggressive*, *president*, *sophisticated* in context are taken from the following dictionaries: *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, 6<sup>th</sup> edition (by Hornby, ed. Wehmeier, 2000), *Oxford Dictionary of English*, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition (eds. Soanes & Stevenson, 2003) and *Collins Cobuild English Dictionary for Advanced Learners*, 3<sup>rd</sup> edition (ed. Sinclair, 2001).

- *sophisticated tastes*,
- *sophisticated observers of the foreign policy scene*,
- *a large and sophisticated new British telescope*,
- *sophisticated communication systems*,
- *a sophisticated restaurant*,
- *sophisticated response to a text*.

It seems that the problem is particularly likely to arise when the two words have a similar spelling and/or pronunciation, as in the case of the pairs *aggressive-agresywny*, *president-prezydent* or *diet-dieta*. However, it is not limited to such words, cf. the pair *sophisticated-wyrafinowany*.

## 4. Final remarks

It is hoped that the article was successful in showing that the notion of primary counterparts can be very useful in explaining certain mechanisms of the emergence of English semantic borrowings in Polish. The two processes, i.e. (1) a learner making underdifferentiation errors in his or her L2 (or interlanguage) and (2) a translator making underdifferentiation errors in his or her L1 (when translating from L2 into L1), appear to have many common features, some of which were described in the present article.

As was noted earlier, the learners of English are probably aware of the fact that their L2 is imperfect, as it is heavily influenced by L1. What appears to be equally important, however, is to make them aware that their L1 is also influenced by L2. In other words, it is not only their L2, which is somehow distorted, but it is also their L1 – in our case here it is Polish – that is somehow distorted by L2. As a consequence, both types of interference should be taken into account by a foreign language teacher.

## References

- Arabski, J. (1979): "Contrastive studies and interlanguage". In: *Papers and studies in contrastive linguistics*. Vol. 10. Poznań: Adam Mickiewicz University, 135-143.
- Arabski, J. (1997): *Przyswajanie języka obcego i pamięć werbalna*. Katowice: "Śląsk".
- Bussman, H. (1998): *Routledge Dictionary of Language and Linguistics*. Trans. Trauth, G. & Kazzazi, K. London & New York: Routledge.
- Crystal, D. (1997): *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics* (4<sup>th</sup> edition). Oxford: Blackwell Publishers Ltd.

- Dunaj, B. & Przybylska, R. & Sikora, K. (1999): "Język polski na co dzień". In: Pisarek, W. (ed.) *Polszczyzna 2000. Orędzie o stanie języka na przełomie tysiącleci*. Kraków: Ośrodek Badań Prasoznawczych, Uniwersytet Jagielloński, 227-251.
- Haugen, E. (1950): "The analysis of linguistic borrowing". In: Firchow, E.S. & Grimstad, K. et al. (eds.) (1972), *Studies by Einar Haugen. Presented on the occasion of his 65th birthday – April 19, 1971* (reprinted from *Language* 26: 210-231). The Hague: Mouton, 161-185.
- Hornby, A.S. (2000): *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*. 6<sup>th</sup> edition, Wehmeier, S. (ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lehnert, M. (1986): "The Anglo-American influence on the language of the German Democratic Republic". In: Viereck, W. & Bald, W.D. (eds.), *English in contact with other languages. Studies in honour of Broder Carstensen on the occasion of his 60<sup>th</sup> birthday*. Budapest: Akadémiai Kiadó, 129-157.
- Mańczak-Wohlfeld, E. (1993): "Uwagi o wpływie języka angielskiego na polszczyznę końca XX w." In: *Język Polski* LXXIII 4-5: 279-281.
- Mańczak-Wohlfeld, E. (1995): *Tendencje rozwojowe współczesnych zapożyczeń angielskich w języku polskim*. Kraków: Universitas.
- Markowski, A. (1992): "Nowsze anglicyzmy semantyczne w polszczyźnie". In: *Poradnik Językowy* 2. Warszawa: Wydawnictwa Uniwersytetu Warszawskiego, 156-160.
- Markowski, A. (1999): "Najnowsze zjawiska zachodzące w polszczyźnie". In: *Nowa encyklopedia powszechna PWN. Suplement*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN, 703-704.
- Markowski, A. & Pawelec, R. (2001): *Wielki słownik wyrazów obcych i trudnych*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo "Wilga".
- Markowski, A. (ed.) (2002): *Nowy słownik poprawnej polszczyzny PWN*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN.
- Markowski, A. (2004): "O pojęciu i typach internacjonalizmów semantycznych". In: *Poradnik Językowy* 2. Warszawa: Wydawnictwa Uniwersytetu Warszawskiego, 39-50.
- Otwinowska, A. (1997): "Uwagi o kilku anglicyzmach gramatycznych, semantycznych i frazeologicznych w polszczyźnie". In: *Poradnik Językowy* 2. Warszawa: Wydawnictwa Uniwersytetu Warszawskiego, 48-53.
- Otwinowska-Kasztelanica, A. (2000): *A study of the lexico-semantic and grammatical influence of English on the Polish of the younger generation of Poles (19–35 years of age)*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwo Akademickie „Dialog”.
- Sinclair, J. (ed.) (2001): *Collins Cobuild English Dictionary for Advanced Learners*. 3<sup>rd</sup> edition. Glasgow: HarperCollins Publishers.
- Soanes, C. & Stevenson, A. (eds.) (2003): *Oxford Dictionary of English*. 2<sup>nd</sup> edition. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Szymczak, M. (1982–1983): *Słownik języka polskiego*. Warszawa: Państwowe Wydawnictwo Naukowe.
- Waszakowa, K. (1995): "Dynamika zmian w zasobie leksykalnym najnowszej polszczyzny". In: *Poradnik Językowy* 3. Warszawa: Wydawnictwa Uniwersytetu Warszawskiego, 1-12.
- Weinreich, U. (1974): *Languages in contact*. The Hague and Paris: Mouton.
- Zabawa, M. (2004): "Nowe zapożyczenia semantyczne w polszczyźnie". In: *Poradnik Językowy* 9. Warszawa: Wydawnictwa Uniwersytetu Warszawskiego, 59-68.

Marcin Zabawa

## Kontakt językowy a nauczanie języka obcego

### Streszczenie

Artykuł niniejszy skupia się na zjawisku interferencji językowej opisanej w świetle polsko-angielskiego kontaktu językowego. Autor zakłada, iż w procesie nauki nie tylko język rodzimy wpływa na nauczany język obcy, ale i odwrotnie. Kluczem do wyjaśnienia owych procesów jest istnienie zjawiska odpowiedników prymarnych (zob. publikacje J. Arabskiego), które zostały przedstawione w artykule w innym niż dotychczas kontekście. Tradycyjnie odpowiedniki prymarne są bowiem wiązane z procesem przyswajania języka obcego, gdzie są odbiciem niepełnej kompetencji w L2. Autor łączy natomiast teorię odpowiedników prymarnych z istnieniem angielskich zapożyczeń semantycznych w polszczyźnie. Jak się bowiem wydaje, omawiana teoria może być bardzo przydatna w wyjaśnianiu mechanizmu powstawania i rozprzestrzeniania się pożyczek semantycznych. Wiele z takich pożyczek jest najprawdopodobniej objawem pewnej utraty kompetencji semantycznej w języku ojczystym (pod wpływem języka obcego). W konsekwencji autor proponuje, aby podczas zajęć z języka obcego zwracać także pewną uwagę na używanie słownictwa rodzimego. Nauczyciele winni ponadto starać się, aby uczniowie przyporządkowywali angielskie słowa ich polskim odpowiednikom w nieco bardziej świadomy sposób.

Marcin Zabawa

## Der sprachliche Kontakt und der Fremdsprachenunterricht

### Zusammenfassung

Der vorliegende Artikel handelt über das Phänomen der Sprachinterferenz, die am Beispiel des polnisch-englischen Sprachkontaktes gezeigt wird. Der Verfasser nimmt an, dass im Lernprozess nicht nur die Muttersprache auf die Fremdsprache Einfluss ausübt, es wird auch der umgekehrte Prozess beobachtet. Ein Schlüssel zur Klärung der Prozesse ist das Phänomen von primären Äquivalenten (siehe die Werke von J. Arabski), die im vorliegenden Artikel in einem anderen Kontext dargestellt werden. Primäre Äquivalente sind normalerweise mit dem Prozess der Fremdspracherwerbung verbunden, wo sie unvollige Kompetenz in der Zweitsprache (L2) widerspiegeln. Von dem Verfasser wird die Theorie von primären Äquivalenten mit den im Polnischen vorhandenen englischen semantischen Entlehnungen assoziiert. Denn wie es scheint, kann die hier besprochene Theorie bei Erläuterung der Mechanismen von der Entstehung und Verbreitung der semantischen Entlehnungen sehr behilflich sein. Viele von solchen Lehnwörtern entstehen am wahrscheinlichsten in Folge der (unter dem Einfluss der Fremdsprache) fehlenden semantischen Kompetenz in der Muttersprache. Der Verfasser schlägt vor, dass man im Fremdsprachenunterricht auch dem Muttersprachgebrauch eine bestimmte Aufmerksamkeit schenkt. Die Lehrer sollten außerdem darauf aufpassen, dass die Schüler englische Wörter ihren polnischen Äquivalenten etwas bewusster zuordnen.